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Drifting Derelict Trajectories in the North Atlantic

Philip L. Richardson

Introduction

In December 1883 the U.S. Navy Hydrographic Office, a branch of the Bureau of Navigation of the Navy Department, began to publish monthly Pilot Charts. Earlier, oceanographer M. F. Maury had produced some summary survey charts showing ocean currents, winds, sailing routes, and the locations of whales. The new charts were unique in that they showed updated positions of derelict vessels and other drifting debris. From this series of positions of identified derelicts the first ocean trajectories were obtained. Much of this information has been forgotten during the last 100 years, and good collections of the Pilot Charts are rare. (The only complete collection that I could find is held by the Defense Mapping Agency.) This article is a recombination and description of these early trajectories and a reminder of the usefulness of the Pilot Charts. It also provides a glimpse of a little known part of maritime history, the last days of wooden sailing vessels.

The Pilot Chart

The new Pilot Charts were prepared to supply a reliable plotting sheet and a graphic presentation of recent as well as general summary information for mariners (Hayden, 1888). The charts were issued free to navigators in return for their reporting recent navigational and weather information. The success of the Pilot Chart was due to the large number of observers that contributed information for each month's chart and its rapid distribution to ships. In the late 1800's there were nearly 3000 voluntary observers, mariners who crossed the North Atlantic and who paroled its waters. Reports of marine meteorology and dangers to navigation were collected from these observers at 11 branch offices and forwarded to headquarters in Washington where the latest positions of wrecks and derelicts were plotted on a large blackboard. The Pilot Charts incorporated these data and were published and distributed at the beginning of each month. In November 1893 the office received no less than 400 reports daily from vessels in the North Atlantic alone. In New York during 1886-1887, 6,730 vessels were visited, 3,601 reports were forwarded to Washington, nautical information was furnished to 83,315 masters of vessels and others, and 10,397 Pilot Charts were distributed (Hayden, 1888).

Derelicts

A derelict is a vessel abandoned at sea. Derelicts that survived more than a few days at sea were usually wooden sailing vessels, and the longest surviving of these were often lumber schooners. From the point of view of a ship captain, a derelict vessel is a formidable obstruction to navigation. A collision with a derelict at night or in fog could damage or sink a ship. In our age of metal ships it is not generally recognized how many derelicts there were nor how long they remained afloat. The Atlantic was literally strewn with numerous "Mary Celestes" in various stages of disintegration.

The number of reported derelict sightings reached a maximum toward the end of the 19th century (Hydrographic Office, 1894). During 1893, a year of particularly numerous derelicts, there were 782 reports of 418 different derelicts. One hundred six of these derelicts were identified by name. All but two

or three of these derelicts were wooden. Over a 7 year period, 1887-1893, a total of 1,628 derelicts were sighted, an average of 232 annually, 19 per month. This suggests that at any one time at least 19 derelicts remained afloat in the North Atlantic. The average length of time a derelict remained afloat is estimated to be 30 days. This is based on assuming a derelict remained afloat 1 day after its last reported sighting or 3 days for a single sighting. During 1887-1893 there were 1,944 reports of the 482 identified derelicts giving an average of four sightings per derelict. The greatest number of derelicts were first reported in September-November and were caused by severe storms. Most were located in the Gulf Stream off the U.S. coast. The numbers of sightings gradually decreased eastward along the transatlantic steamer routes. Many of the large number of derelicts observed during the fall of 1893 were caused by a series of three hurricanes which occurred in August of that year.

Derelict Trajectories

Numerous derelicts remained afloat over half a year and were reported often enough to give long and interesting ocean trajectories. A listing of derelicts that floated longer than 200 days is given by Richardson (1984). Six of the derelicts drifted longer than a year: (1) schooner *Fannie E. Walton*, 1100 days; (2) schooner *Wyer C. Sargent*, 615 days; (3) bark *Telenach*, 551 days; (4) bark *Vincenzo Perrotto*, 536 days; (5) schooner *Ethel M. Davis*, 370 days; and (6) schooner *James B. Dwyer*, 367 days.

The trajectories of three long-lasting and far-drifting derelicts are shown in Figure 1. One of the best known of these was the three-masted lumber schooner *W. L. White*, belonging to A. F. Ames of Rockland, Maine. She was abandoned off Delaware Bay during the great blizzard of March 13, 1888. A telegram dated Stonoway, Hebrides Islands, Scotland, January 23, 1889, marked the termination of the *White*'s 310 day transatlantic drift. She ended stranded upon Heaskeir Island in the Hebrides.

The *White* began her drift southward under the influence of the inshore current and northwest gale, with masts and portions of her sails standing. Upon reaching the Gulf Stream she turned and followed a east-northeast course at an average speed of about 32 miles per day. From May to November 1888 she looped and zigzagged east of Newfoundland directly within a major shipping lane. During these 6 months she was reported by 36 vessels, three of which sighted her in a single day. In her cruise of 10 months and 10 days, she traversed a distance of 5,900 miles and was reported 45 times.

Although the detailed paths of the derelicts are very different from each other, there are some similarities which might be described as patterns. Eight of the longest drifting derelicts moved eastward in the Gulf Stream until they reached 50°W where their paths diverged. Three derelicts continued eastward and crossed the Atlantic in an average time of 10 months. The *White* took 310 days, the *Twenty-one Friends* took 255 days, and the *Hunt* took 347 days. Six derelicts drifted southward from the Gulf Stream near 40°W. The *Dwyer* and the *Hill* both made tight turns and drifted westward just south of the Gulf Stream. The *Walton* made a complete circuit of the gyre during its 3-year drift. This derelict drifted south to 25°N, westward to the Bahamas, and then northeastward into the Gulf Stream again, crossing its earlier path. The trajectory of the *Telenach*, which was 1.5 years long, is similar to that of the *Walton*. Two derelicts drifted erratically but in general southwestward direction through the Sargasso Sea and grounded on the Bahama Islands.

Most derelicts looped as they drifted. The *Sargent* and *Walton* made large, 500 km loops with a characteristic period of 10 months near 30°N, 40°W. Several other derelicts made frequent smaller scale loops: the *Perrotto* and *Francis* in the Sargasso Sea and the *White* east of Newfoundland.

An example of variability of ocean surface currents is given by the drift of the bow and stern of the *Fred B. Taylor*. On June 22, 1892, the *Traue* collided with the *Taylor* and the latter was cut in two (from Pilot Chart, September 1892). The forward and after parts separated and drifted in entirely different directions (Figure 2). The bow went 340 miles during 93 days and was reported 47 times. The stern went 350 miles during 47 days and was reported 20 times. The different directions could have been partly caused by the different areas of bow and stern presented to the wind and current.

Superimposed Trajectories

A summary diagram was prepared that shows 200 derelict trajectories reported in the Pilot Charts from 1883 to 1902 (see cover). Earlier but less complete charts showing trajectories of derelicts have been given in the supplements of February, 1889 and 1893 to

the Pilot Charts, by the Hydrographic Office (1894), and by Hautreux (1897). Derelict vessels which first appeared near the U.S. Coast south of Long Island and north of Cape Hatteras usually drifted in a southward direction following the inshore current until they reached Hatteras, where they entered the Gulf Stream and drifted eastward.

In general, derelicts entered the Gulf Stream north of 30°N and moved eastward in the Stream. When they reached the area south of the Grand Banks, near 40°N, 50°W, they split into two bands of trajectories. The first band reaches northeastward and then eastward, passing north of the Azores between 40° and 50°N. The second band extends southeastward and then westward near 25°N. Six derelicts moved southward between the Azores Islands and Spain and Portugal. The general pattern indicated by the collected trajectories is of a large clockwise gyre split into two branches, one branch located north of the Azores, the other southwest of the Azores. The splitting of the Gulf Stream near the Grand Banks has been confirmed by more recent measurements (Monterey, 1967; Clarke et al., 1980), but it is still controversial (Warrington, 1978).

Superimposed on the large-scale, long-term general circulation pattern can be seen considerable seasonal variability. The derelicts do not often smoothly follow the large-scale gyre; instead they drift in convoluted trajectories that often cross each other. The convoluted paths give an early Lagrangian measure of mesoscale eddies and longer period current fluctuations. We now know that the ocean is populated by energetic eddies that are usually much stronger than the mean currents (Schmitz et al., 1983; Robinson, 1983). Recently, the importance of these eddies to the general circulation has been recognized, and they have been studied intensively. Because of these eddies, the mean circulation

becomes recognizable only by averaging a great quantity of observations in space and time, as can be done by eye on the cover. In the Gulf Stream, the North Atlantic Current, and the North Equatorial Current, one clearly sees the general drift in spite of the eddies. In the Sargasso Sea the trajectories are dominated by mesoscale eddy motion.

One should be cautious about interpreting all the motion indicated by trajectories as being due to water movement. Derelict ships varied in size and weight and in state of damage when abandoned. Some were totally dismantled and filled to the gunwales with water. Along with the 30% of the sightings which were of vessels that had turned bottom up, these probably provided a good indication of the speed and trajectory of near surface water. Derelicts with masts standing and those riding high in the water would no doubt be significantly influenced by the winds blowing directly on the mast and exposed hull.

There are the additional problems of position errors of the reporting ship, misidentification of derelicts, and infrequent sightings. It is difficult to evaluate with the available information how accurate the details of trajectories really are. The average number of days between sightings is about 20, which is sufficiently small that we can see some aspects of mesoscale eddies but not small enough except in a few occasions to resolve individual loops. Despite the lack of frequent and precise positions, the collection of the trajectories represents a realistic view of the general Lagrangian circulation and of current variability.

Within the last decade, freely drifting buoys remotely tracked by satellite have begun to be used in large numbers to measure velocities and trajectories of near-surface waters. The newer measurements have the advantage over earlier derelict trajectories of several fixes per day and a higher positional accuracy. From a collection of these measure-

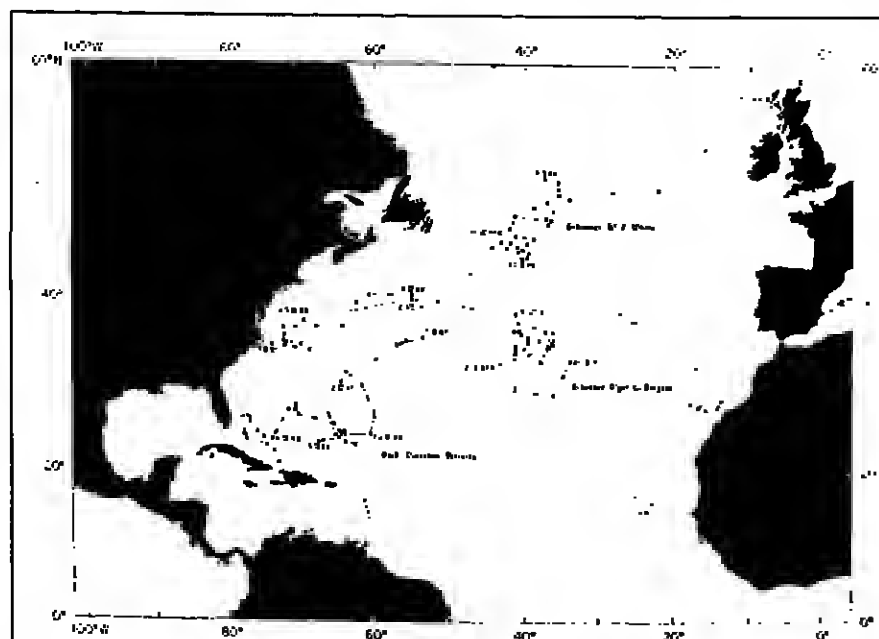


Fig. 1. Trajectories of (1) the schooner *W. L. White* from March 13, 1888, to January 23, 1889, a drift of 5,190 miles and 310 days; (2) the schooner *Wier C. Sargent* from March 3, 1891, to December 6, 1892, a drift of 5,500 miles and 615 days; and (3) the bark *Vincenzo Perrotto* from September 17, 1887, to April 4, 1889, a drift of 2,950 miles and 536 days.

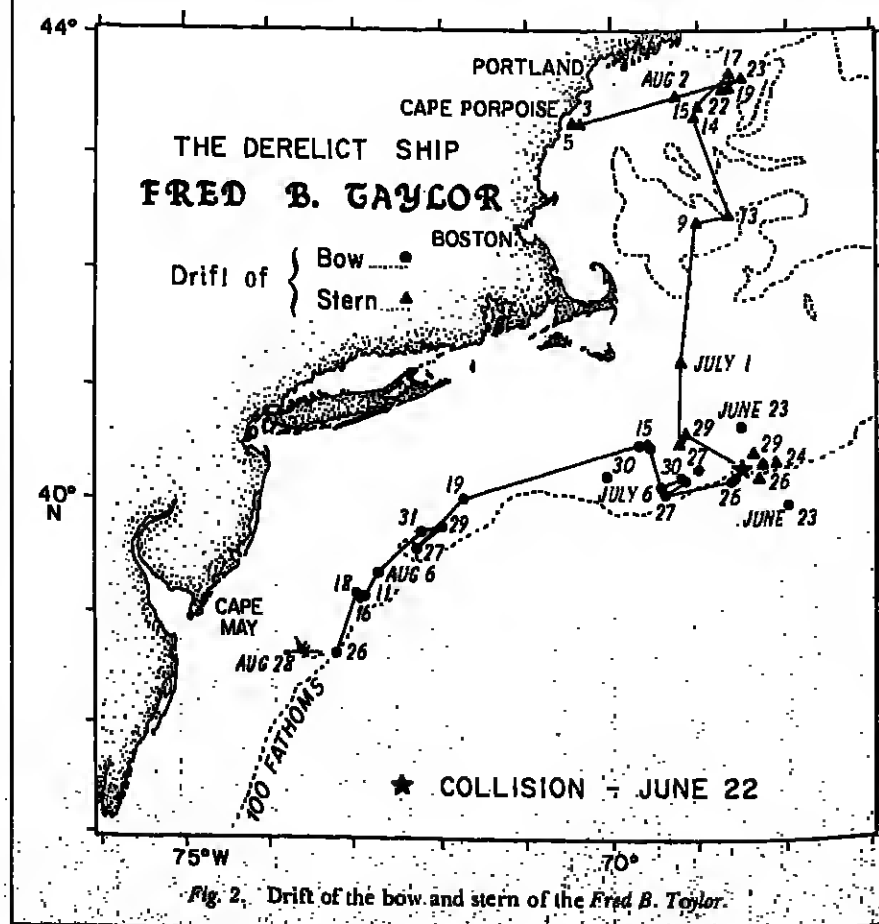


Fig. 2. Drift of the bow and stern of the *Fred B. Taylor*.

ments we have been able to obtain a more quantitative picture of aspects of the general circulation and of the geography of ocean variability. A summary figure of the buoy trajectories (Richardson, 1983) shows general patterns very similar to those of the derelict trajectories. If these buoys continue to be deployed in the North Atlantic we might expect that the numbers of their trajectories may eventually surpass the numbers of drifting derelict trajectories.

Derelict sightings and trajectories have been viewed here as giving interesting information about ocean currents. We should not forget that this information came with a tragedy of life and shipping. Toward the end of the 19th century, 12,000 lives and 2,200 vessels were lost at sea each year worldwide (supplement to February 1893 Pilot Chart). Each severe storm that was encountered at sea left new derelicts in its path and added new names to the long list of vessels and men who left port but were never heard of again. The plots of derelict sightings are a sad reminder of lost vessels, suffering, and death.

Summary

Pilot Charts, published monthly during the last two decades of the 19th century, reveal a rare, interesting, and tragic glimpse of maritime history in detailing observations of drifting derelict ships. The large collection of derelict sightings was made possible by the excellent and fast reporting system established by the Navy Hydrographic Office. Numerous voluntary observers reported dangers to navigation which were quickly incorporated into the next month's chart. By 1900, however, wooden sailing ships, which comprised most of the derelicts, had been superseded by steamers, and derelicts became infrequent. Drifting derelicts gave some first examples

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Cover. Superposition of drifting derelict trajectories plus a few drifting buoys during 1883-1902 as given by the monthly Pilot Charts, first published by the U.S. Navy Hydrographic Office, a branch of the Navy Department, in 1883. A few derelict trajectories close to the U.S. east coast were omitted for clarity. The general pattern shows the large-scale ocean circulation. Convolutions of trajectories and those that cross each other show the time variability of ocean currents. (Figure courtesy of Philip L. Richardson, Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution, Woods Hole, MA. See article "Drifting Derelict Trajectories in the North Atlantic," by Philip L. Richardson, this issue, *The Oceanography Report*, p. 730.)

of ocean trajectories. They showed the general pattern of circulation in the North Atlantic Ocean including the bifurcation of the Gulf Stream near the Grand Banks of Newfoundland. The trajectories gave an early indication of current variability. Coupled with sea and drift measurements from ships underway, these derelict trajectories provided much of the early knowledge of near-surface ocean currents.

Acknowledgments

A. Green kindly made available the Defense Mapping Agency's collection of Pilot Charts, 1883-1902. Funds were provided by the National Science Foundation under grant OCE81-09145. This is an abbreviated version of a paper that discusses the same information (Richardson, 1984).

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Mathematical Models for Zooplankton Swarms: Their Formation and Maintenance

Akira Okubo and James J. Anderson

Introduction

Many aquatic invertebrates are known to form swarms and schools. Thus, zooplankton are usually distributed unevenly both in vertical and in horizontal directions. There are a great number of studies on zooplankton swarms ranging from simple records or observations to more extensive functional and behavioral investigations. Yet, no attempt has been made on mathematically modeling these phenomena, chiefly because of the lack of detailed data on individual movements in swarms.

Swarms are groups of individuals engaging in more or less cohesive movements without parallel orientation. The presence or absence of parallel orientation distinguishes schools from swarms. Individual organisms in a swarm apparently exhibit irregular movements which might be regarded as random. However, random motion alone makes a larger space as time progresses (i.e., diffusion). Therefore, an adequate model for zooplankton swarming must assume certain regularities in the motion of individuals superimposed upon its randomness. This deterministic part arises primarily from behavioral interactions between swimming individuals and possesses the nature of an attractive force. A swarm is maintained by the balance between the deterministic and stochastic forces. Modeling for swarm formation involves random search for prey or conspecific individuals followed by accelerated aggregation as a result of mutual communication or biological cue.

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In this report we will present both kinematic and dynamical models for the maintenance and formation of swarms.

Kinematic Interpretation of Difference Between Swarming and Diffusion

We consider a single one-dimensional case (x axis). Swarming implies randomness in motion. Thus both velocity $v(t)$ and displacement $x(t)$ of an individual in a swarm are random variables.

As a statistical measure determining the swarm dimension, the variance of the displacement is calculated by averaging the square of x over the ensemble (e.g., over a sufficiently large number of individuals in a swarm). Without loss of generality we assume that the individual organisms start at $x = 0$ and the individual movement to be symmetrical with respect to the origin so that the swarm centroid remains at the origin. Thus, the variance of x is obtained by

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{x^2}(t) &= \int_0^t \langle v(t')v(t') \rangle dt' \\ &= 2 \int_0^t \int_0^{t'} \tau \langle v_1(\tau)v_1(\tau) \rangle d\tau dt' \\ &= 2 \int_0^t \int_0^{t'} \tau \langle v_1(\tau)v_1(\tau) \rangle d\tau dt' \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

where

$$\langle v_1(t)v_1(t') \rangle = \langle v_1^2(t) \rangle \delta(t-t') + \tau \langle v_1^2(t) \rangle \delta(t-t')$$

is the Lagrangian velocity autocorrelation coefficient. We have assumed that the random velocity field is stationary so that the correlation coefficient depends only on the time lag τ .

Equation (1) provides us with kinematic distinction between diffusion and swarming in terms of the velocity autocorrelation. By diffusion we mean that the individual velocity loses its statistical dependence on past velocities as the dispersion continues. In other words, $\langle v_1(t)v_1(t') \rangle$ approaches zero at large time lags such that the last integral in (1) converges as $t \rightarrow \infty$. We then find from (1) that as $t \rightarrow \infty$,

$$\overline{x^2}(t) \rightarrow 2Dt \quad (2)$$

where

$$D = \int_0^\infty \langle v_1(t)v_1(t') \rangle dt' \quad (3)$$

If, on the other hand, (1) is to mathematically describe swarming, $\overline{x^2}$ must approach a constant value for steady state swarm maintenance. This is satisfied only if $\langle v_1(t)v_1(t') \rangle$ oscillates about zero value in such a manner that $\langle v_1(t)v_1(t') \rangle$ approaches zero asymptotically, and, consequently, the second integral of (1) approaches a negative constant value. In physical terms, the individual motions appear to resemble a random pendulum-like motion about $x = 0$. Experimental confirmation on this model would be to determine the velocity autocorrelation coefficient of individual animals in a swarm.

Dynamical Model for the Maintenance of Swarm

We now consider a dynamical model for swarm maintenance. Newton's equation of motion will be applied to swarming animal motion. We assume that (1) the frictional force is proportional to the velocity of organism (in fact, Reynolds numbers associated with zooplankton range from 0.1 to 500 (Zaret, 1980) so that the Stokes' law of drag may not be applicable to some large and fast moving zooplankton); (2) the nonrandom force is attractive by nature toward the center of swarm and dependent on the distance from the center; and (3) the random force is a type of white noise.

Then the equation of motion is given by

$$m \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = -k \frac{dx}{dt} - \omega^2 x + A(t) \quad (4)$$

where k is the frictional coefficient, ω is the frequency of harmonic component of the attractive force, $\phi(x)$ is the acceleration due to anharmonic component of the attractive force, and $A(t)$ is the random acceleration of a white noise nature;

$$\overline{A(t)A(t')} = 2B\delta(t-t') \quad (5)$$

where B is the intensity of the variance of $A(t)$.

An approximate analytical solution of (5) may be obtained by the method of equivalent linearization (Bulawa et al., 1982). To this end, (5) is replaced by a linear system with an equivalent linear frequency ω_e such that

$$\omega_e^2 = \omega^2 + \langle \phi(x)/x \rangle \quad (6)$$

where the angle brackets denote a time average over one cycle of oscillation of $x = a \sin \omega t$.

Solving this linearized version of (5) for x ,

we calculate the velocity-autocorrelation coefficient to be

$$\langle v_1(t)v_1(t') \rangle = e^{-k(t-t')/2} (\cos \omega_e(t-t') - k/2\omega_e \sin \omega_e(t-t')) \quad (7)$$

where

$$\omega_e^2 = \omega^2 - k^2/4 \quad (8)$$

Also the variance is found to be

$$\overline{x^2} = B/k\omega_e^2 \quad (9)$$

as $t \rightarrow \infty$.

This dynamical model enables us to obtain the variance of displacements of swarming animal in terms of parameters that characterize the motion of individuals. The square root of (9) scales the spatial extent of swarm. With certain modifications on the stochastic forcing function $A(t)$ the dynamical model equation (5) or its equivalent linearization is also applicable to schooling of fish (Okubo, 1980).

In view of the assumed nature of the stochastic force the random process (x, v) is Markovian, and the probability density function (p.d.f.) $p_2(x, v, t)$ obeys a Fokker-Planck equation. We thus obtain from (5) and (6)

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial p_2}{\partial t} &= -v \frac{\partial p_2}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial}{\partial v} \left\{ (-kv - \omega^2 x - \phi(x)) p_2 \right\} + B \frac{\partial^2 p_2}{\partial v^2} \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

Since p_2 is an even function of x and the nonrandom attractive force is an odd function of x , integral of (10) over x leads to

$$\frac{\partial p_1}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial v} \left\{ (-kv - \phi(x)) p_1 \right\} + B \frac{\partial^2 p_1}{\partial v^2} \quad (11)$$

where

$$p_1(v, t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_2(x, v, t) dx; \quad \text{p.d.f. of velocity} \quad (12)$$

For steady state p_1^*

$$p_1^*(v) = (k/2\pi B)^{1/2} e^{-k/2B v^2} \quad (13)$$

which is the Maxwellian velocity distribution. The p.d.f. of displacement x may be obtained by integrating $p_2(x, v, t)$ over v

$$p(x, t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_2(x, v, t) dv \quad (14)$$

Alternatively, if we use the Smoluchowski-Kramers approximation or the method of adiabatic elimination (Gutierrez, 1983) in (5), we obtain

$$\frac{\partial p_1}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left\{ \frac{\omega^2 x + \phi(x)}{k} p_1 \right\} + \frac{B}{k} \frac{\partial^2 p_1}{\partial x^2} \quad (15)$$

The steady state p.d.f. p_1^* gives the number density distribution of swimming organisms

$$p_1^*(x) = p_0 \exp \left(-\frac{\omega^2 x^2}{2B} - \int_0^x \frac{\phi(x')}{B} dx' \right) \quad (16)$$

where p_0 is the density at the swarm center. The non-Gaussian density distribution arises from the anharmonic attractive force. Since $\phi(x) > 0$, the density distribution tends to be platykurtic. It is conceivable that the anharmonic attractive force is a manifestation of density-dependent advective velocity toward the swarm center. It is a built-in mechanism to maintain a sharp boundary of concentration despite a general tendency to spread by the random component of motion. The net effect also produces a more or less uniform density of organisms within a swarm which is characteristic of a platykurtic distribution.

Comparison With Data

Verification of our mathematical models for swarming requires comparisons with appropriate data; to our regret no such data really exist in the marine field. In desperation we are forced to borrow data from "terrestrial" (i.e., insect) swarming.

High-speed filming on swarming of midges, *Anopheles tritaeniorhynchus* Kim, provides us with basic kinematic data for evaluating swarm maintenance characteristics such as velocity autocorrelation coefficient, velocity frequency distribution, acceleration field, swarm dimensions, and insect number density distribution (Okubo and Chiang, 1974; Okubo et al., 1977).

Figure 1 shows the velocity- and acceleration-vector field of individual midges in an instance of swarming. The midges of size 1-2 mm move with high acceleration, occasionally twice or more the acceleration of gravity (g). The motion inside the swarm has more or less random in both velocity and acceleration, but the midge is subject to an inward force (or rather acceleration) which is felt strongly at the swarm edge. As we model in (5), the presence of this inward-oriented force plays a crucial role in maintaining the

Oceanography (cont. on p. 732)

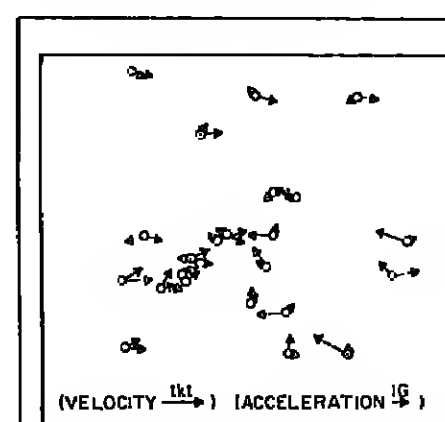


Fig. 1. Velocity and acceleration field of individual animals in an instance of swarming.

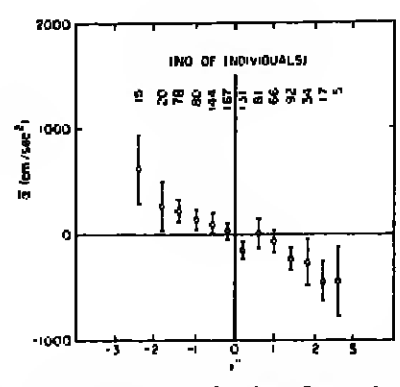


Fig. 2. Mean acceleration of swarming animals versus normalized distance from the swarm center.

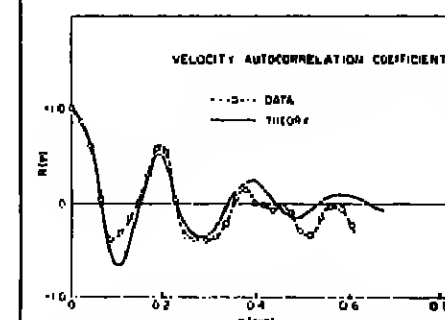


Fig. 3. Velocity autocorrelation coefficient of swarming animals versus time lag.

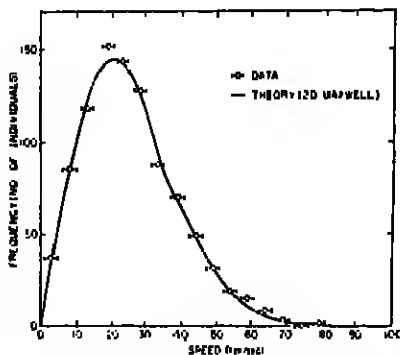


Fig. 4. Speed frequency distribution of swarming animals.

swarm against a general tendency of spread by the randomness in the motion. The acceleration field in swarming can be seen more clearly in Figure 2, where we plot the mean acceleration of swarming animals against normalized distance from the swarm center.

Figure 3 shows the velocity autocorrelation coefficient against time lag. The theoretical curve is based on (8) with $k = 6.8/s$ and $\omega_p = 31.6/s$. The observed behavior of the autocorrelation coefficient is consistent not only with the kinematic interpretation of swarming but also with the dynamical model.

Figure 4 shows the frequency distribution of insect speed in a swarm, which can be well approximated by the Maxwell speed distribution. The theoretical curve is based on (14) with $k = 6.8/s$, $\omega_p = 1.22 \times 10^4 \text{ cm}^2/s^2$, the value of B is estimated from the observed mean squared velocities of individuals.

The number density distribution of swarming individuals is in fact platykurtic as our mathematical model, equation (17) predicts. For six swarms of *Anastrepha* the mean kurtosis is 2.60, and the difference from normality (kurtosis = 3) is statistically significant. As explained earlier, this deviation from normality arises from anharmonic attractive forces that correspond to density-dependent advective velocity toward the swarm center. Okubo and Chiang (1974) obtained empirically with *Anastrepha* swarms that the advective velocity scaled by diffusivity is proportional to the minus 1/4 power of the number density.

Dynamical Model for the Formation of Swarm

Modeling swarm formation is much more difficult than that of swarms maintenance simply because we deal essentially with a transient behavior. The dynamical model of swarm formation assumes two processes (i.e., initial random encounter of conspecific individuals and accelerated aggregation followed).

The initial phase of swarm formation may be modeled in a way similar to Anderson (1981). Namely, the change with time of the number of individuals $N(t)$ in a swarm is determined as the difference between the rate that zooplankton enter the swarm, which is independent of N without communication, and the rate that zooplankton exit from the swarm, which is proportional to N . We thus have

$$\frac{dN}{dt} = a - bN \quad (18)$$

where a and b are constants. Possible stochasticity in a and b may be incorporated (Anderson, 1981). The solution of (18) subject to $N = 1$ (one individual) at $t = 0$ describes an asymptotic approach to a stable equilibrium $N = a/b$ with a rate of b^{-1} .

This equilibrium state would not be realized, however, if mutual communication exists as swarming progresses. Some possible mechanisms by which zooplankton might communicate are light, pressure changes due to sound generation, and chemosensory by means of pheromones. Aggregation behavior in response to pheromones has been well known in insects, and chemical communication has been observed in copepods and planktonic shrimp.

If chemosensory is assumed as the mechanism of zooplankton communication, we can

construct a simple model for the accelerated aggregation process that leads to a massive swarm or "superswarm."

First consider diffusion of a chemical from a spherical source of radius R . For steady state the concentration of chemical C is given by

$$C(r) = Q/4\pi rK \quad r \geq R \quad (19)$$

where Q is the rate of release of chemical, K is diffusivity, and r is the distance from the center of the sphere.

We now regard the source as a swarm, in which $N(t)$ is the total number of individuals, p is the mean volume occupied by one individual, and q is the emission rate of chemical by one individual;

$$Q(t) = qN(t)/4\pi rK \quad (20)$$

Let C^* be the threshold concentration for chemosensory response. Then the effective sphere of chemical communication around the swarm has the volume of

$$V = \frac{4}{3}\pi r^{*3} = \frac{4}{3}\pi R^3 \left(\frac{qN}{4\pi KC^*} \right)^3 = \frac{4}{3}\pi \left(\frac{qN}{4\pi KC^*} \right)^3 N^3 = pN^4 \quad (21)$$

Any individual who happens to be within the sphere of influence will be attracted to the swarm by chemotaxis. Let v be the velocity of chemotaxis and S_0 be the background density of zooplankton. Then the change with time of the number of individuals in the swarm is given by

$$\frac{dN}{dt} = v_0 V = v_0 \mu N^4 - \lambda N \quad (22)$$

where

$$\mu = \frac{4\pi}{3} \left(\frac{q^3}{4\pi KC^*} \right)$$

and

$$\lambda = \frac{3}{4\pi} \left(\frac{4\pi KC^*}{q^3} \right)^2$$

The solution of (22) subject to $N = N_0$ at $t = t_0$ is obtained by

$$N(t) = \left[\frac{\lambda}{1 - (1 - \lambda N_0^{-3}) \exp(2\lambda \mu S_0 \mu (t - t_0))} \right]^{1/3} \quad (23)$$

This solution describes the avalanche of aggregation in such a manner that the swarm reaches an infinite size within a finite time span given by

$$t - t_0 = (2\lambda \mu S_0 \mu)^{-1} \ln(1 - \lambda N_0^{-3})^{-1} \quad (24)$$

which for small λN_0^{-3} approximates

$$t - t_0 = (2\lambda \mu S_0 \mu)^{-1} \quad (25)$$

The knowledge of the pertinent parameters would enable us to estimate this critical time. Again, no such data exist in marine swarming. The presented model may also be applicable to acoustic communications with minor modifications.

Discussion

We have outlined mathematical models for the formation and maintenance of zooplankton swarms. The theories extend beyond the ability of observation in many instances, and this may be criticized since some consider that theory without observations is a scientific crime. In fact we believe it is a crime not to. In justification of this view we reference the synergistic relationship between theory and observation in particle physics. In many ways, zooplankton are not unlike particles but with very elaborate laws of governing their behavior.

Our approach at this time is to consider the very basic features of swarming and to compare our mathematical models with available data on insect swarming. To proceed into marine swarming, kinematic data on zooplankton swarming are urgently needed for evaluation of the mathematical models. For example, information on the basic swarm properties: the density of swarms in a habitat and the density of zooplankton in a swarm will enable us to estimate at least the ratio of the diffusivity and the attractive forces in terms of the number of density (Okubo and Chiang, 1974).

In perspective, this paper is written by two persons who eagerly undertake to build models of zooplankton swarming in the dim hope that they will find a scent of a "working hypothesis" on swarming that can be tracked by biologists. It remains to be determined if the creature whose track we follow will be categorized as "BIOSSENS" or "BIONSENSEN-SIS."

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Information Report

Biowatt: A Study of Bioluminescence and Optical Variability in the Sea

On entering water, light is both scattered and absorbed. The sum of these is attenuation. In the open ocean, the agent of most scattering and absorption is plankton, or plankton-derived products. The controls, therefore, governing the variability in light absorption and scattering are no less than the controls governing the distribution, abundance, and growth of plankton populations. Apart from being attenuated, light is also generated ubiquitously in the upper layers of the sea through mechanisms of bioluminescence. The overall and long-term goal of Biowatt is to establish causal links operating between the variability in light attenuation and light production in the ocean. The issues addressed range from behavioral relationships among macrozooplankton and micron-ektion, to the dynamics of absorbing and scattering populations, to the physical dynamics of the upper layers. A conceptual model is shown in Figure 1.

The beginnings of Biowatt can be traced to an advisory meeting convened by the Office of Naval Research (ONR), in December 1982 at Berkeley, Calif. The 30-odd meeting attendees explored various research and instrumentation development avenues within the framework of bioluminescence and optical variability in the ocean. Preliminary recommendations from the group covered immediate tasks, overall design of the program, possible field sites, and the sort of modeling effort which should accompany and guide the observations (Blizard et al., 1982). During

1983, the program continued to evolve in concept, drawing much scientific support and insight from a predecessor ONR program, the Optical Dynamics Experiment (ODEX). Funding approval for ONR for Biowatt came in early 1984, at which time a steering committee was selected. (The Biowatt Steering Committee members are James F. Gase (USCS), Tom Dickey (USC), John Marra (LDGO), Mary Jane Perry (UIW), Raymond C. Smith (USCS), and Elijah Swift (URI).) The program is expected to have a duration of 5 years, with field years in 1985 and 1987. We now turn to some of the specific issues Biowatt will address in the coming field experiments.

Optical Variability in the Ocean

Biological and optical oceanographers traditionally deal with plankton populations in terms of such macroscopic, but easily measured, variables as chlorophyll *a*, particle counts and beam transmittance. In many kinds of biological oceanographic studies, such as the influence of physical processes on phytoplankton, these are the variables of choice since the sampling design necessitates near continuous data acquisition. However, studies of the dynamics of plankton communities require much more elaboration of organism type and function, and trophic processes, but with a compromise of sampling coverage. An understanding of the optical variability of the ocean will require both kinds of research: the physical forcings upon macroscopic variables as well as the detailed character of the biological distributions and dynamics that these forcings permit.

For example, at one level, we need to understand how physical processes in the upper ocean influence vertical distributions of chlorophyll *a* and particulate matter, and thereby the behavior of inherent and apparent optical properties. (These optical properties refer, respectively, to those independent of and dependent on, light source distribution.) A variety of physical processes contribute to the mass, momentum, and energy budgets in the upper ocean, however, a few phenomena can be identified as major sources of the variance spectra of physical and biological data fields. According to Klein (1980) and Dickey and Simpson (1983), wind and surface current interactions caused by inertial resonance phenomena may explain rapid mixed-layer deepening, which, if true, means that nutrient fluxes may vary substantially on time scales of hours (Klein and Coste, 1984).

Beyond this, developing predictive relationships between biological particles and optical properties in the ocean requires much more exhaustive specification of the nature of absorbers and scatterers. From an optical perspective, biogenic particles are ensembles of sizes, shapes, pigments, and refractive indices. We do not understand enough about the nature of the particles themselves and their distributions (let alone their dynamics) to enable an understanding of their influences to variability in absorbance and scattering.

Although the various types of phytoplankton (diatoms, dinoflagellates, cyanobacteria, etc.) together can theoretically absorb light over the entire underwater spectrum, the spatio-temporal distribution of absorbing pigments within individual cells will directly affect the absorption coefficient. The identity of particles which dominate scattering is also poorly known, largely because we understand very little concerning the composition, trophic structure, and interrelationships of plankton communities of the open ocean. One of the more significant finds of the last several years is the food web, grazers, producers, and remineralizers, composed of organisms less than 10 microns in diameter. The dynamics of this food web is largely unexplored, but it is possible that much of the flux of matter and energy in the open ocean occurs in this size range of organisms.

Related to this is the problem of detrital and organism aggregates, sometimes called "marine snow." Much of our current knowledge of the occurrence and nature of marine snow is anecdotal. Recent work suggests its importance to production and food web dynamics (e.g., Knauer et al., 1982; Caron et al., 1982; Goldman, 1984); however, quantitative and nondestructive sampling of aggregates is extremely difficult. While abundant data on aggregates less than 200 microns in diameter is nonexistent, photographic evidence of large (>3 mm diameter) aggregates (Florio et al., 1984) suggests that they are not so abundant as to affect significantly light attenuation. Even so, aggregates, as important

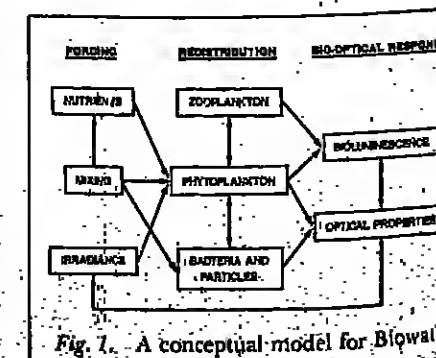


Fig. 1. A conceptual model for Biowatt.

TABLE 1. Bioluminescent Taxa Responsible for Epipelagic Bioluminescence in the Sargasso Sea (0-100 m) Giving Concentrations Per Cubic Meter, C, Bioluminescence Potential, BP, and Relative Importance, I

Group	C	BP	I
Dinoflagellates			
Pyrosocysts	30	2×10^{10}	
Other	30	10^9	
Copepods			
Pleuromma	2	2×10^{12}	1/10
Others	30?	10^{11}	
Ostracods	10	1×10^{11}	6/10
Euphausiids			
Adult	0.2	1×10^{12}	1-2/10
Larvae	8	4×10^{10}	1/10
Decapods			
Sergestids	0.002	10^{12}	
Others	0.00001	10^{12}	
Mysids		10^{10}	
Amphipods		10^{11}	
Larvae	20	4×10^{10}	
Coelenterates	5	2×10^{10}	
Polychaetes	0.3	6×10^{10}	1/10

Data courtesy of Elijah Swift, Graduate School of Oceanography, URI, Kingston, RI 02881.

absorbers and scatterers, may be missed, since current optical instruments measure a small volume and there is presently no means of extrapolating to bulk optical properties over the water column. Furthermore, it is possible that aggregates strongly influence food web dynamics. So even if their direct effect optically is small, their indirect effect could be large.

Bioluminescence in the Ocean

A major goal of Biowatt is to predict patterns of oceanic bioluminescence and relate these to variability in optical properties over appropriate spatial and temporal scales. For purposes of modeling bioluminescence potential in the sea, an immediately obvious generalization is that the numbers and types of bioluminescent members of a pelagic community define the limits of the bioluminescent potential. That is to say, it should be possible to predict the bioluminescence potential from knowledge of the distributions of bioluminescent organisms.

Predictions of actual bioluminescence are complicated by considering that (1) light is generated in the ocean by six of the seven known bioluminescent systems; (2) in some marine environments, over 97% of the individual organisms and 90% of the species have been reported to be bioluminescent (Young, 1983); (3) spectral emission ranges in kinetics range from 400 nm to the far red; (4) kinetics range from 60 ms flashes to continuous glowing several minutes; and that (5) intensity of the emission is controlled by a variety of biological mechanisms. Furthermore, the actual bioluminescent signal which can be elicited by strong mechanical stimulation is modulated by the physiological state of the organisms, reproductive and nutritional status, etc., as well as a variety of environmental factors.

Undoubtedly, the least understood and perhaps the most intractable aspects of Biowatt are the biological determinants of bioluminescent response. Nevertheless, significant progress has been made in oceanographic bioluminescence research. For example, instead of dinoflagellates and fish, zooplankton have been found to be the most important bioluminescent source in the Sargasso Sea (Table 1) and perhaps in many areas in the open ocean. Recent observations point to clear relationships between temperature fronts, chlorophyll *a* distributions, and observable bioluminescence (Figure 2). Other observations (E. Swift et al., manuscript in preparation, 1984) show variable depth coherence between the deep chlorophyll maxima and bioluminescence potential. In the Sargasso Sea, the bioluminescence potential peak has been observed to be as much as 40 m above the chlorophyll maximum, while in some of the island passages in the Caribbean the peaks are coincident.

Spatio-temporal scales of bioluminescence are largely biologically determined. In some areas, such as the Norwegian Sea, bioluminescence is strongly seasonal because of the pop-

ulation dynamics of crustacean zooplankton. In the Sargasso Sea, on the other hand, there appears to be relatively little seasonality in numbers of relative abundance of bioluminescent organisms (E. Swift et al., manuscript in preparation). Biogeographic communities have been defined in which the relative numbers of bioluminescent and nonbioluminescent members have a stable relationship (McGowan, 1978). It is possible that population and biological studies of species responsible for much of the bioluminescence potential will be particularly useful in predicting patterns of bioluminescence.

Field Studies

The first Biowatt experiment will be a cruise, now scheduled for April 1985. The general plan for this initial phase of Biowatt will be to sample different water masses in the northwest Atlantic for biological and optical properties and for bioluminescence potential. The questions we ask during this phase of the program are ones of composition, distributions of the biological populations. We are particularly interested in the vertical structure of physical and optical properties, biological variables, and bioluminescence potential and their interrelationships.

The overall success of the program is highly dependent on the resolution of relevant temporal and spatial scales of variability in physical, biological, and optical parameters. From a biological standpoint, the two most important time scales are the diurnal and the seasonal. The diurnal time scale is accessible from shipboard platforms; however, seasonal time series for open ocean locations are rare. We believe a surface mooring to be the best means of characterizing the temporal evolution of physical, biological, bioluminescence, and optical parameters at a given location, and this is planned for the subsequent field effort in 1987. The mooring will provide an opportunity to sample for a long enough period to evaluate seasonal cycles, with enough sampling density to assess aperiodic variability associated with synoptic weather systems. The mooring will be equipped with a wide variety of the latest physical, biological, bioluminescence and optical sensors. During cruises to service the mooring, shipboard programs can be accommodated to sample short-term variability not accessible from the in situ observations, to allow various kinds of experimental programs to help interpret mooring observations, and to characterize spatial variability and horizontal gradients in the vicinity of the mooring.

Again, the overall and long term goal of this study is to be able to make predictions of the optical properties and bioluminescence patterns of the sea from knowledge of physical forcings, biological processes, and the interrelationships between physical, biological, and optical properties. A key link in this effort is the distribution and variance of biogenous absorbers and scatterers, their size and pigment distributions, and the dynamics of these biological populations. Clearly, this will require concerted efforts by physical, biological, and optical oceanographers.

Investigators interested in Biowatt are invited to contact the Biowatt Project Office, care of Lamont-Doherty Geological Observatory, Palisades, New York 10964.

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News & Announcements

W. Stanley Wilson: AGU Ocean Sciences Award



The Ocean Sciences Section of the AGU recognizes W. Stanley Wilson for his unique leadership contributions to the emerging role of satellite measurements in oceanography. Through his persistent efforts the ocean sciences now stand on the brink of a new era that will merge conventional research techniques with new satellite technologies.

Stan completed his B.S. and M.A. degrees at the College of William and Mary. He spent three years as a research biologist in Australia, New Zealand, and Antarctica before obtaining a Ph.D. in oceanography from The Johns Hopkins University in 1972.

He then joined the Office of Naval Research (ONR) as a program manager for physical oceanography. Promoted to program director for physical oceanography in 1979, he helped to develop and manage outstanding multi-institutional programs that included the Mid-Ocean Dynamics Experiment (MODE), the North Pacific Experiment (NOPAX), and the Mixed Layer Experiment (MILE). Stan was highly successful in integrating and translating the new research results into Navy operational use. For these efforts, he was awarded the Department of the Navy Superior Civilian Service Award in 1979.

In 1979, Stan accepted a new challenge with NASA as Chief of the Oceanic Processes Branch in the Office of Space Science and

Applications. Seasat had recently failed after only 96 days, and its successes or failures were as yet unknown. By implementing a plan for the utilization of these first-ever satellite data intended for ocean research, he and NASA have demonstrated the tremendous promise of oceanography from space.

His branch is now planning a series of new satellite missions for oceanography. These are a NASA scatterometer (for wind measurements) to fly on the Navy Remote Ocean Sensing System (NROSS) in 1989, an improved radar altimeter to measure ocean circulation for the Ocean Topography Experiment (TOPEX) in 1989, and Ocean Color Imager (OCI) for biological research. These missions have been designed through the close coordination of the NASA engineering and ocean sciences communities, as well as the Office of the Oceanographer of the Navy, the National Science Foundation, ONR, and NOAA. Stan has recognized the importance of the cooperation between different scientific disciplines. With skill, dedication, and patience he has advocated ideas through inter-agency planning. Working in concert with the scientific research, engineering, and operational oceanography communities, oceanography now has the potential for longer-term, larger-scale studies of the global oceans.

In summary, Stan's exposure to the many facets of oceanography while at ONR has served the ocean sciences well at NASA. His high energy, coupled with scientific foresight, has introduced the new satellite technologies in ocean research. He has had the tenacity and courage to break this new ground, as well as the statesmanship to convince the traditionalists in the oceanographic community of the potential value of satellite ocean remote sensing. Oceanographers are now looking to future programs that will incorporate satellite measurements as a crucial element. For his central role in the establishment of satellite remote sensing as a proven technology in ocean sciences, we recognize Stan Wilson's achievements.

This item was contributed by Christopher N. K. Moores, Past-President, Ocean Sciences Section; Joseph L. Reil, President; and Peter G. Brewer, former Secretary.

World Ocean Circulation Experiment: Planning for a U.S. Component

A World Ocean Experiment (WOCE) to improve our description and understanding of the world ocean circulation is being planned. Technological and scientific developments of the last decades have made possible the serious consideration of such a global experiment to begin in the late 1980's. These developments include an increased understanding of the nature of ocean circulation and the sampling procedures needed to observe it, instrumentation for long time series measurements, numerical ocean models and high-capacity computers to use them, improved methods for measurement of chemical tracers, the means for obtaining improved ocean measurements from vessels of opportunity, satellite technology that can observe both the primary atmospheric forcing and the oceanic response, and the realization that addressing global societal problems related to the ocean will require a coordinated, global-scale program of ocean observation and modeling.

The WOCE is considered to be a contribution to the study of long-term climate trends and sensitivity (Stream 3) of the World Climate Research Program (WCRP). At the international level the formulation is being guided by a Scientific Steering Group under the auspices of the Committee on Climatic Changes and the Ocean and the Joint Scientific Committee of the WCRP.

The provisional goals for an international WOCE are (1) to collect the data necessary to develop and test ocean models for predicting climate change and (2) to determine the representativeness of the specific WOCE data sets for the long-term behavior of the ocean and find methods for determining long-term changes in the ocean circulation. Since the focus is on the construction of ocean models and the collection of data sets necessary for demonstrating that these are useful models of the ocean circulation, the determination of what these data sets should be is the crux of the WOCE design. The International Scientific Steering Group has established a Numerical Experimentation Group and six working groups in different areas to consider what major data sets are required and to determine strategies for obtaining the required data.

On the basis of present concepts it seems likely that the major elements of WOCE will include models, satellite altimeters, a satellite gravity mission, satellite scatterometers for surface winds, other fields of surface forcing, hydrography, tracer measurements, direct velocity measurements, acoustic tomographic arrays, ship-of-opportunity programs, and a data management system. Many of these elements must be coordinated with the proposed

Oceanography (cont. from p. 733)

satellite missions scheduled for the 3- to 5-year lifetimes to begin in 1989. Others must begin earlier (now) and continue throughout the most intensive operational phase and beyond.

Each participating country is expected to develop a national plan which might contribute in the areas of its capability and interest to the overall experiment. Within the United States this planning process began with a workshop on "Global observation and understanding of the general circulation of the oceans" for some 60 members of the U.S. oceanographic community. The workshop was organized under the auspices of the National Research Council (NRC) Board on Ocean Science and Policy and held during August 1983 in Woods Hole, Mass. The workshop participants agreed that the WOCE concept is worthwhile and timely, identified a tentative U.S. goal and objectives, and recommended that a U.S. planning committee and a number of working groups be established to address critical issues. The provisional objectives of the U.S. component of WOCE are directed toward describing and understanding global ocean circulation. It was felt that this understanding is important for itself and must precede an understanding of the role of the ocean in climate.

The workshop report received wide distribution and review, and a panel for the U.S. WOCE was constituted within the NRC, sponsored jointly by the panels of the Board on Ocean Science and Policy and the Board on Atmospheric Sciences and Climate. This panel has been moving toward the design of a U.S. WOCE component. Initial support for the panel activities has been provided via the NRC and by a grant from the National Science Foundation to the Joint Oceanographic Institutions Inc. Several U.S. working groups (closely coordinated with the international groups) have been established: communication links between the U.S. scientific community, the sponsoring agencies, and the international components are being implemented; and a proposal for an intensive planning activity for the fiscal years 1985-1987 has been prepared.

To date, U.S. working groups have been formed to plan WOCE activities in the following areas: measurement and interpretation of tracers, experimental design for measuring geostrophic circulation, surface forcing (wind stress and heat and moisture fluxes), numerical modeling, data management, and technology development. In addition, other ad hoc groups for meetings and activities by interested groups of scientists are being supported.

To inform the community of the activities of the panel, working groups, and ad hoc groups, we plan to publish, in TOR, brief reports of meetings and other items of interest. In this issue we include the report of a Deep Drifters Meeting held in Denver, Colo., on May 18-19, 1984. Interested scientists should contact panel members, meeting chairpersons, working group members, or the U.S. WOCE Planning Office: W. Nowlin, Department of Oceanography, Texas A & M University, College Station, TX 77843 (telephone: 409-815-2947; telemail: Sciencenet, W. Nowlin).

New Research Vessels

Two "new" ocean-going research vessels operated by the Scripps Institution of Oceanography and the National Science Founda-

tion (NSF) will soon begin full-time scientific duties off the coast of California and in the Antarctic, respectively. The 37.5-m Scripps vessel, named *Robert Gordon Sprat* in honor of the ex-president of the University of California, replaces the smaller ship *Ellen B. Scripps*, which had served the institution since 1965. The new ship is a slightly modified Gulf Coast workboat. Under the name of *Midnight Alaskan*, it had been used for high-resolution geophysical surveys in American and Latin American waters by such firms as Arco Oil & Gas, Exxon, Pennzoil, and Ralderca before its purchase by Scripps from a Louisiana chartering firm last summer.

The *Robert Sprat* is undergoing a number of modifications for scientific outfitting, including the addition of laboratories, winches, booms, and electronic and research instruments. The ship will be used mainly along the California coast and in the Gulf of California for biological investigations, physical oceanography, and scientific equipment testing. Its maiden voyage, however, scheduled for early September, will take it to Yucatan, Mexico, for a study of seals, then on to the west coast of Mexico for in-transit studies of marine mammals and birds. The *Robert Sprat* is expected to return to its home port of San Diego by late October, and to make its first voyage along the California coast in support of physical oceanography experiments in late autumn. Meanwhile, the *Ellen B. Scripps* is being offered for sale, with the proceeds to be used to pay for the new ship.

The new NSF Antarctic research ship, *Polar Duke*, will replace the wooden-hulled *Hero*, which has served in the Antarctic since 1968. The new ship is larger (85.7 m versus 37.5 m), and its hull is classified as strong as that of an ice-breaker. It will have room for approximately 40 people (some 2-3 times *Hero's* capacity), and will have a helicopter deck. As a result, it will be able to conduct research in the rough waters between South America and Antarctica that was impossible with the aging *Hero*. The new ship's cargo space is being converted to laboratories in preparation for its first scientific voyage on or about January 1 of next year. The *Polar Duke* will support antarctic research in biology, oceanography, and geology. Originally designed for scientific and transport expeditions, the vessel is being leased from Gurnee Shipping Limited of Newfoundland by ITT/Antarctic Services, who will operate the ship for the NSF for a period of 5 years. There is also a provision for two 1-year extensions. *Hero*, meanwhile, will be retired after 16 years of operations in Antarctic waters, and current plans are to dispose of it as government surplus.

Meetings

Deep Drifters Meeting

Technical development of a new generation of deep drifting systems is proceeding at several locations. A meeting was held in Denver, Colo., on May 18-19, 1984, under the joint sponsorship of the National Research Council (NRC) Panel for a U.S. World Ocean Circulation Experiment (WOCE) and the Drifters development program. The purpose was to discuss the state of development of these systems, their prospects for continued development, and their possible use in programs such as WOCE, where the intended spatial and temporal sampling scales are quite

large. The three new systems discussed were the RAFOS (SOFAR spelled backwards), the General Circulation Drifter, and Dyogene. The capabilities of existing Sound Fixing and Ranging (SOFAR) floats were also discussed.

The expectation of remotely sensed data from satellites as part of the WOCE has prompted reconsideration of what types of in situ instruments are most suitable for use with such data. Satellite data approaches global spatial coverage and continues over years, with a temporal resolution between a few days and a month. Very few in situ measurement systems can approach these sampling characteristics without heroic effort and extraordinary expense. Drifting buoy systems, which report sensor data and/or position through satellite systems, such as the present System ARGOS, hold great promise for achieving sampling characteristics which are compatible with satellite data if they can be made sufficiently inexpensive to be deployable in large numbers. The focus of this meeting was on drifting buoys capable of measuring interior ocean currents by passive drift.

A major objective of WOCE is to determine the transports of heat, salt, and other chemical properties over large distances due to both systematic (mean) and irregular (diffusive) advection. Traditionally, these transports have been inferred largely from the spatial distributions and knowledge of sources and sinks. These inferences can be made in principle with more confidence for transient property fields (e.g., bomb radiocarbon and tritium). However, as a complement to such indirect methods, the long-time trajectories of deep drifting buoys may provide important direct information about the capacity of the general circulation for transport of passive water properties.

The Global Circulation Drifter (GCD) is under development by Doug Webb at Webb Research Corporation in collaboration with Russ Davis at Scripps Institution of Oceanography. It is designed as a free-drifting vehicle which will operate down to 2000 m and be capable of several round trips to the surface to report its position by ARGOS. The design is for a lifetime of 10 years and of approximately 40 round trips to the surface, which might be extended to 200 with further development. The GCD is undergoing testing at sea in 1984.

RAFOS is a buoy which drifts at the depths of the sound channel. It is under development by Tom Rossby at the University of Rhode Island. In addition to temperature and pressure, RAFOS stores the time of arrival of signals from fixed SOFAR sound sources three times a day. At the end of its design lifetime (presently 6 months) the float surfaces and telemeters its stored data through ARGOS. The sound sources are moored in the area of interest on simple moorings. The usable range from source to the RAFOS float is about 1500 km, though this will vary geographically depending on the water characteristics. Acoustic sources have an expected lifetime of perhaps 2.5 years, which might be extended to 5 years with additional development. Similarly, the lifetime of the RAFOS floats themselves probably can be extended to beyond a year. This system will be used in the Gulf Stream and adjacent regions during the period 1984-1986.

Dyogene is under development by J. C. Gascard in France. It is a deep drifter designed to sample for periods of about 1000 days, with data subsets of about 100 days being reported via ARGOS during a round trip to the surface. Dyogene rises by releasing ballast and descends by releasing buoyancy in the form of glass balls. A 1-month test on the surface confirmed the performance of the data-reporting system, including a low-profile antenna. Depth cycling tests are planned next. A pilot experiment with a limited number of buoys will be carried out in late 1986 or 1987. The lifetime of Dyogene is presently limited by the life of the lithium batteries. It could be extended by using solar rechargeable cells.

SOFAR floats have been used in a variety of locations and experiments since the late 1960s. In its original form the system consisted of drifting sources and shore-based receivers. Later innovations include the use of a moored recoverable receiver, the Autonomous Listening Station (ALS), which frees the experimenter from the geographical constraints of working near existing shore stations. An even more recent development is the RELAYS (Real-Time Link and Acquisition-Yare) system, which may be regarded as a drifting ALS. This system is being tested during 1984. The present expected lifetime of SOFAR floats is about 2.5 years, which can be expected to be increased with better quality control but minimal redesign. About 50% of the floats deployed have lasted to their energy limit (battery life). SOFAR floats may drift at various depths in the range 500-2000 m, with the best performance (greatest range) obtained in the sound channel.

Contemplating the use of drifters in large-scale experiments as part of the WOCE leads to the question of operational feasibility. Experimental design may suggest the use of 1000 floats in an ocean basin. How are such large numbers of floats to be prepared and deployed? Will it be necessary to establish new facilities to carry out this operational ac-

tivity and relieve the burden on the more experiment-oriented academic institutions? Such facilities might handle the drifting floats, moored sources, and moored Autonomous Listening Stations.

The ARGOS transmitter is a substantial part of the cost of construction of a drifting buoy. Less expensive ARGOS-approved Position Transmittal Terminals (PTT) with position accuracy of about 5 km (lower than present) may be commercially obtainable. An accuracy of 5-10 km would be adequate for the buoys under discussion, and a lower-cost PTT should be sought and approved for ARGOS use.

The discussion of a plan for deep drifters in WOCE addressed two general questions: For what purposes would one want the deep drifter data? How many drifters would be needed? The proposed purposes were analyses of mean horizontal velocity and velocity variance (eddy kinetic energy), dispersion of drifters (hence horizontal diffusivity), mapping of the very large scale and low frequency velocity field, and pathways of the general circulation, i.e., displacements over distances larger than individual eddy scales. For each purpose one can determine how many drifters are required to achieve a given degree of success.

These determinations have, as yet, been made only very crudely. However, there was general agreement that something near 1000 drifter years of data in an ocean basin the size of the North Atlantic would make a significant contribution to each of these purposes. (This assumes moderately frequent location reporting, which is more easily accomplished for acoustically tracked drifters, and moderately uniform horizontal distribution.) A crude illustration of the basis for this number, most relevant to the first of the purposes above, follows. One thousand drifters, reporting weekly for a year and uniformly distributed in an area equal to a 4000-km square, would give 50 nearly independent samples of low-frequency velocity on a grid spacing of about 125 km. This would determine the mean with an accuracy better than 1 cm/s for a standard deviation of 5 cm/s. If the analysis grid were coarse, the accuracy would be better for the same number of drifters, or the same accuracy would be achieved with fewer drifters.

The following points relevant to future development of buoy systems were made:

- The RAFOS receiver should be put in the GCD (or Dyogene) vehicle, providing a multiply recycling, acoustically traced drifter.
- These floats should be aimed at intermediate depths. The flow at extreme depths is more topographically controlled and therefore harder to interpret in a general circulation context, while the shallower depths (above 500 m) can probably be measured with cheaper drogued surface buoys. (SOFAR and RAFOS are inherently restricted to intermediate depths in any case, because of the need for reasonably long acoustic ranges.)
- Effort should be put into the technical aspects of combining RAFOS, SOFAR, and ocean acoustic tomography in future experiments, using a mutually compatible system of acoustic sources.

• Consideration should be given to adding data telemetry to the SOFAR Autonomous Listening Stations to allow "real-time" processing of data. The Moored Oceanographic Instrumentation System (MOIS) program at Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution might provide the technology base to make this possible.

• Both ships-of-opportunity and aircraft should be considered for buoy deployment, and each buoy system should be so planned.

This new generation of intermediate depth drifting floats will provide new tools for the general circulation investigator. Their capabilities are such that a selection or mix of float types may be called for in a given experiment, depending on experimental design and location. There are intriguing possibilities for synergistic combinations between various types of floats and between the floats and other new technology, such as tomography.

Acknowledgments

Funding for the WOCE planning activity was provided by the National Science Foundation; support for the Drifters program has been provided by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, the National Aeronautics and Space Administration and the Office of Naval Research.

This report was submitted by Robert Heintz, Miller of Onnet, Inc., and James McWilliams of the National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR).

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Beginning in 1985, Reviews of Geophysics and Space Physics will be titled Reviews of Geophysics. Approximately 600 pages to be published in Volume 23, 1985.

News (cont. from p. 729)

eruption on the southern part of the fissure had ceased except on one crater, which then changed into phreatic activity.

"On the northernmost part of the fissure, activity continued as of 11 a.m. of 12 September with significant lava production. By 8 September, inflation rates over the magma chambers diminished and slow deflation started."

"As in previous eruptions, lava production was highest on the northern part of the fissure and has so far not constituted any threat to inhabited areas."

Information Contacts: Karl Grönqvist, Nordic Volcanological Institute, University of Iceland, Reykjavik, Iceland; Páll Einarsson, Science Institute, University of Iceland, Reykjavik, Iceland.

Meteoritic Events

Fireballs: Canada; Czechoslovakia; Netherlands; Tasman Sea; California, south-central states, Massachusetts, Oregon, Wisconsin, USA; Zimbabwe.

Books

Groundwater Contamination

Panel on Groundwater Contamination of the Geophysics Study Committee of the National Research Council, National Academy Press, Washington, D. C., xii + 179 pp., 1984.

Reviewed by R. Allan Freese

Since 1977, the National Research Council (NRC) has published 13 monographs in its *Studies in Geophysics* series. Earlier volumes have dealt with such diverse topics as energy and climate, geophysical prediction, tectonics, and explosive volcanism. *Groundwater Contamination* is the 14th volume in the series. It was produced by a Panel on Groundwater Contamination initiated by the Geophysics Study Committee of NRC in consultation with representatives of the supporting agencies and members of the scientific community. The preliminary scientific findings formed the basis of an American Geophysical Union symposium in San Francisco in December 1981. This monograph is the most concise and most accessible reference available on this important environmental problem.

The report consists of 14 chapters authored by well-known researchers in the field and an overview of the study that summarizes the highlights of the chapters and formulates conclusions and recommendations. The 14 chapters are arranged in five groups: 1. Background (one chapter); 2. Processes (two chapters); 3. Methods of Waste Disposal (two chapters); 4. Examples (seven chapters); and 5. Institutional Aspects (two chapters).

The Background chapter by Veronica Pye and Jocelyn Kelley of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia assesses the extent of groundwater contamination in the United States on the basis of two independent regional surveys that have been carried out, one by the Environmental Protection Agency and one by the Environmental Assessment Council. They conclude that cases of groundwater contamination have been documented in all parts of the country but that "we are still in a position to make choices on how best to use, manage, and protect this valuable resource."

The chapters on Processes by Mary Anderson of the University of Wisconsin and John Cherry and his coworkers at the University of Waterloo provide an up-to-date assessment of our physical and chemical understanding of the movement of contaminants in groundwater. While the current advection/dispersion/retardation approach is capable of mimicking observed behavior, it is now clear that it does not represent an understanding of the transport processes at the fundamental level required. There is still much to be learned with respect to organic contaminants, transport in fractured rock, and the questions of scale that surround the slippery concept of dispersion.

To my mind, the heart of this book lies in the seven case histories presented in part 4. It is in the individual tales of mismanagement, realization, and reclamation that the difficulties in measurement, assessment, and prediction become clearest. Many of the most visible of the well-known recent contamination incidents are here: The Love Canal in New York, the Rocky Mountain Arsenal in Colorado, the Langollen landfill in Delaware, and the low-level nuclear waste dumps at Hanford, Washington, and Maxey Flats, Kentucky. The description of the aquifer reclamation project at the Rocky Mountain Arsenal by Leonard Konikow of the U.S. Geological Survey and Douglas Thompson of the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers is a particularly valuable case history.

In the Overview prepared by the panel, there are four recommendations that appear in italics:

1. Research is needed on the effects of chemical reactions on transport and dispersion of contaminants by groundwater and the quantification of flow in fractured media.
2. There should be a more thorough search for disposal sites that can be used safely to isolate toxic wastes from the biosphere for long periods.
3. A strategy [should] be developed that provides for the segregation, treatment, and disposal of wastes according to their hazards and their chemical affinities.
4. Governmental and industrial organiza-

tions need to agree whether various classes of wastes should be disposed of locally or in regionally designated repositories.

This is a valuable book. It will undoubtedly be used for readings in many hydrogeology seminars, and it is well suited to this purpose. But it is even more important that its message reach environmental engineers, designers of waste disposal systems, administrators of local and state agencies, and lawyers and legislators.

R. Allan Freese is a professor in the Department of Geological Sciences at the University of British Columbia, Vancouver, Canada.

Physical Geology: Principles and Perspectives

E. A. Hay and A. L. McAlester, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, N.J., 1984.

Reviewed by James W. Shehan, S.J.

Textbooks on physical geology have proliferated over the past 20 years or more, during which time most fields have undergone a subject matter explosion. The challenge of authoring such a textbook is to accurately summarize the most important factual and theoretical results and to present the material in a pedagogically attractive and meaningful manner. The authors' primary aim has been to challenge.

Basically, I could teach the course quite happily using this book as the text. An attractive feature is that the authors have summarized those aspects of the science with which I am most familiar in a generally acceptable and interesting manner. This includes excellent line drawings and block diagrams calculated to be very helpful to the student. Those chapters dealing with areas of the authors' scientific expertise are understandably stronger and smoother than some others. A useful perspective for the beginning student and teacher is an explicit discussion of geology as a science with a comparison and contrast of methods and results in relation to other fields of science.

The chapters are brief enough to provide a readable overview. Following the treatment of classification and principles, a number of chapters have several pages illustrating the foregoing by an analysis of regional geological features of considerable general interest, such as Yosemite, Kings Canyon, and Sequoia National Parks noted for igneous activity, for example. Each chapter has an abbreviated, useful outline of the main points covered and several appropriate references for additional reading. Many chapters have interesting, short single topic treatments ("boxes") (e.g., "The Driving Mechanism Behind Plate Tectonics"). The book is a good teaching vehicle because, with notable exceptions, it is easy to supplement the text in class with one's own favorite illustrations. Such an exception is chapter 2, "Basic Building Blocks—Matter and Minerals," which would be more effective if abbreviated, and some of the exquisite detail of crystal chemistry stored in an appendix for one who needs a fuller explanation.

There are a few incomplete sentences, inexact or awkward use of terms such as siltstone for silica, or "ultramafic igneous rocks and serpentinite" (p. 285), omission of sheeted dikes in description of ophiolites, or neglect of the solar wind in the consideration of the shape of the lines of force of the earth's magnetic field (p. 259, Figure 7.16), for example. These are all mainly items that proofreaders and paid consultants will remedy for the second printing of this revised edition, no doubt. A number of the photographs (black and white) tend to be too dark or are otherwise of inferior quality (e.g., Figure 4.25b) and detract from the generally outstanding quality of the illustrations.

This is an attractive book mainly because it is a carefully abbreviated summary of most of the topics and is very well illustrated, notably with line drawings. The pedagogically useful references to the relationships between geology and the needs of mankind, chapter summaries, vignettes of regional geology classics, "boxes," and additional readings, and a good quality glossary and index outweigh the negative points noted above. In general, such features of this revised edition should render it

Earthquakes

Date	Time, UT	Magnitude	Latitude	Longitude	Depth of Focus, km	Region
Aug. 6	1907	6.8 M _s	32.40°N	131.81°E	50	Off Kyushu, Japan
Aug. 17	1806	3.9 m _g	37.82°N	78.39°W	6	SW Virginia, USA

Information Contacts: National Earthquake Information Service, U.S. Geological Survey, Stop 967, Denver Federal Center, Box 25046, Denver, CO 80225.

quite competitive with some of the other books of quality now available.

James W. Shehan, S.J., is director of Weston Observatory and professor of geology, Department of Geology and Geophysics, Boston College, Weston, MA 02159.

Nonlinear Waves

Lokenath Debnath (Ed.), Press Syndicate of the University of Cambridge, New York, 360 pp., 1983.

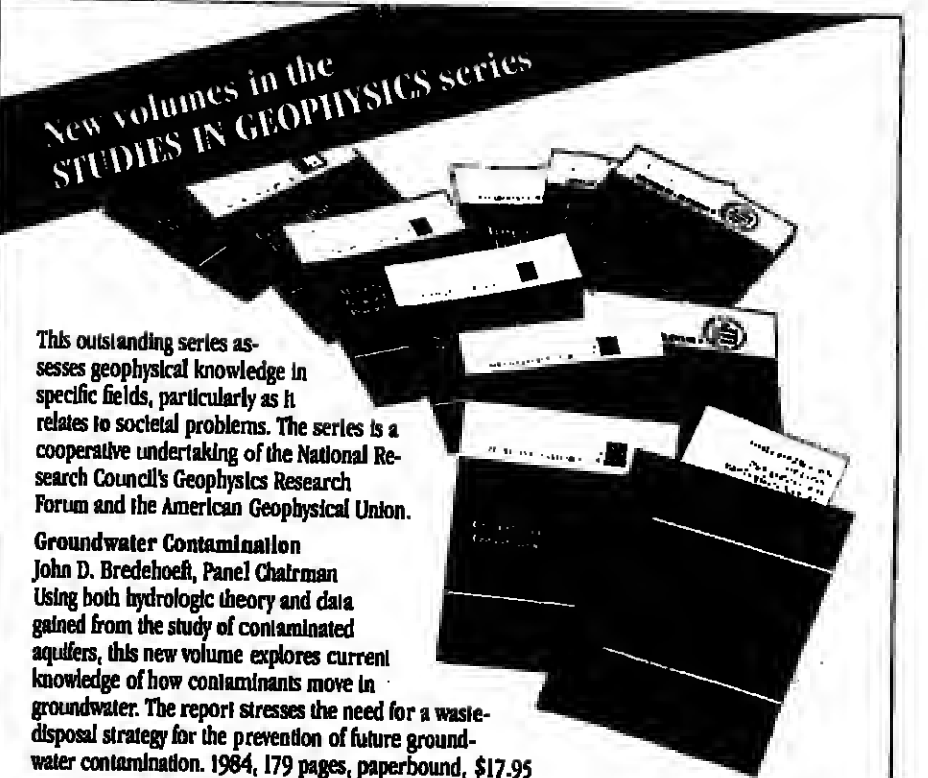
Reviewed by Dennis Papadopoulos

The book *Nonlinear Waves* edited by L. Debnath is a collection of papers on the theory and applications of nonlinear wave phenomena. The book is an outgrowth of an NSF-CBMS regional research conference on nonlinear waves and integrable systems, convened in June, 1982 at East Carolina University. The book aims at bringing together recent developments on the theory of nonlinear waves and solitons, with selective applications in the areas of fluid dynamics and plasma physics. The field had an explosive growth during the last decade, and it is, correctly, expected that it will exert a major influence on future research directions of many fields of physics and engineering.

The book is divided into three parts. The first two deal primarily with applications of the mathematical techniques for solving nonlinear equations to special problems in the fields of fluid dynamics and plasma physics. The third part deals mainly with applied mathematics and focuses on recent results and extensions of the inverse scattering transformation (IST), of the evolution equations, and of the statistical mechanics of the Sine-Gordon Hamiltonian. A total of 18 papers are included in the volume, seven on fluid dynamics, five on waves and solitons, and six on applied mathematics. Taken individually, almost all of the papers are well written reviews of important subjects in their specific fields, including a variety of recent and exciting results and techniques. Of particular interest are the fluid mechanics chapters 2-5, along with chapters 16 and 17 of the applied mathematics part, which discuss a variety of solutions of the Korteweg-deVries (KdV) and nonlinear Schrödinger (NLS) equations for systems with and without dissipation, including the role of variable coefficients. A general with order spectral transform and its inversion and the role of recurrence are also presented in an interesting fashion.

Unfortunately, that is as far as I can point to any kind of unifying theme among the various chapters of the book, and even in this case I am stressing it. The level of mathematical sophistication is so uneven as to make most of the book rather unreadable on any level of general physics, applied mathematics, or engineering audience. I do not believe that the desired cross fertilization among the nonlinear hydrodynamicists, plasma physicists, and applied mathematicians can be accomplished with this book. It is possible that this could have been achieved through the discussions at the conference; nevertheless, as often happens in similar cases, the following manuscripts tend to be more sophisticated and specific.

Books (cont. on p. 731)



This outstanding series assesses geophysical knowledge in specific fields, particularly as it relates to societal problems. The series is a cooperative undertaking of the National Research Council's Geophysics Research Forum and the American Geophysical Union.

Groundwater Contamination
John D. Bredehoeft, Panel Chairman
Using both hydrologic theory and data gained from the study of contaminated aquifers, this new volume explores current knowledge of how contaminants move in groundwater. The report stresses the need for a waste-disposal strategy for the prevention of future groundwater contamination. 1984, 179 pages, paperback, \$17.95.

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Francis R. Boyd, Jr., Chairman
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Groundwater Transport: Handbook of Mathematical Models (1984)

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